

THE ADMINISTRATION OF SPECIAL EDUCATION
PROGRAMS IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF JAPAN

BY

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The purpose of this study was to describe the administration of special education programs in the public schools of Japan. Perceptions of the management and implementation of these programs were examined with a view toward making several comparisons to special education programs in the United States.

In recent years, the field of special education, in America, has experienced the impact of new growth and rapid change. Finding methods to deal with new challenges presented by these conditions has focused on the need to share ideas concerning the administration of the field. The Japanese have appeared to achieve notable success with regular public education programs. It appeared appropriate to consider any achievements they may have accomplished in other areas of education, specifically special education.

A questionnaire was devised to survey Japanese special education administrators about the specific characteristics of the management and implementation of special classes for educable mentally handicapped and mildly emotionally disturbed students. Items contained in the instrument concerned regulatory and funding practices, staffing and evaluation procedures, extent of integration prevalence rates, identification of current problems, and utilization of social welfare agencies.

The respondents had several perceptions relative to the management of special education programs. First, municipal boards of education were primarily responsible for regulating and funding special education. Second, staffing committees existed for making educational decisions about handicapped youngsters. Third, the staffing committees were primarily composed of education and medical professionals. Lastly, they convened frequently at various times during the school year and spent an average of one to five hours on each case.

Relative to implementation, the respondents had these perceptions: various instruments were used to evaluate each student; a set of procedures existed for placing students; the extent of integration was moderate; social welfare agencies outside the schools provided services for handicapped students; and problems relating to personnel, parents, and inservice confronted special educators. Based on the findings of this study, it was concluded that several similarities existed between the United States and Japan concerning the administration of special education programs.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Since the end of World War II, the United States and Japan have experienced tremendous rates of economic growth based on high rates of human productivity. While the economy of the United States has been characterized by growth, it has also been uneven and at times seriously stalled. In contrast, until very recently, Japan experienced explosive economic growth and increasing rates of productivity for almost two decades. Ouchi (1981) reported that Japanese productivity has increased at 400 percent the rate of the United States during the post war years.

A nation's productivity must, in part, be a function of the quantity and quality of its human resources. For more than 200 years, the educational system of the United States has continuously developed the knowledge and skills of an increasing number of its population. The primary outcome of this effort has been the creation of the most industrialized and advanced nation on earth.

Recent Japanese successes in the marketplace have made it apparent that Japan has also entered the realm of highly

industrialized and technological societies. It has become the second most powerful economy in the world (Kahn & Pepper, 1979). A major contributing factor to this dynamic growth has been Japan's well educated work force trained by the public education system.

Vogel (1979) stated that, in 1975, 97 percent of Japanese students entering high school completed their schooling. Additionally, he described the illiteracy rate as generally estimated at below 1 percent. The Japanese public education system has been described as primarily responsible for high rates of productivity and the nation's overall success (Gelb & Epstein, 1982).

By contrast, in the United States recent events have focused attention on problems of the nation's public school system rather than its successes. The National Commission on Excellence in Education (1983) described these problems and recommended several reforms which included a longer school day, a stronger curriculum, and more stringent graduation requirements. In Florida, the state legislature recently mandated that school districts throughout the state implement reforms reflecting these measures. The rationale for these changes was based on the thinking of academic, government, and business leaders. Japan's productivity achievements based on a strong public education system played a prominent role in their thoughts (The Florida Council of 100, 1982).

In recent years, the nations of the world have realized that the sharing of ideas has not only become a reality but also a tool of survival in a rapidly changing world (Tonkin & Edwards, 1981). Such sharing has been exemplified by the relationship between the United States and Japan since the end of World War II. Both nations have shared ideas and technology resulting in strong interdependence and mutual benefits. Yet, according to Tonkins and Edwards (1981), the academic community has not heeded the realities of international cooperation and its implications for education. They suggested that the best interests of Americans could be served by considering the interests of others and creating more cooperation among nations.

It has become increasingly clear that the United States has begun to examine the successful operations of the schools of other nations. Experts in this country believe that Japan is one nation that the United States could learn from concerning general education reform. Might the Japanese success in this area have any implications for improving practices in more specialized areas of the American public education system?

In recent years, the field of special education in the United States has experienced the impact of new growth and rapid change. Finding methods to deal with the new challenges presented by these conditions has focused attention on the

need to share ideas concerning the administration of the field. Although extensive communication and experience sharing among special education professionals has taken place in the United States, it appears that very little has occurred between the United States and other countries. Considering that the Japanese have achieved notable success with regular public education programs, it appears worthwhile to investigate their ideas concerning the administration of special education programs. Information regarding the similarities and differences relative to these programs in Japan and the United States could benefit special education administrators in both nations to develop a mutual understanding of program operations found in each country.

The Problem

Several studies and articles written in English concerning Japanese special education have been published in the United States (Kituhara, 1971; Ogamo, 1974; Okabe, 1978). The authors addressed such areas as cross-cultural studies concerning attitudes toward handicapped students, the status and problems of special education in Japan, and plans for providing educational services to handicapped students in the public schools. Few researchers have described, in English, the operations utilized in the administration of Japanese special education. This investigator attempted to describe

them and to make some comparisons to those employed in the United States.

To accomplish this, two tasks were performed. First, the development of Japanese special education was explained within the context of the evolution of that nation's modern school system. From such an explanation, a more comprehensive understanding of this phenomena was possible. Second, the specific characteristics of the administration of special education was detailed in order to describe the actual operations of the system. To address this second task, two objectives and accompanying questions were specified. Each objective was met by answering the accompanying questions. This investigation specifically sought to elicit the following information:

1. To determine how Japanese special education in the public schools is managed.
 - a. Which governmental agencies are responsible for regulating special education?
 - b. Which governmental agencies are responsible for funding special education?
 - c. What prevalence rates exist for programs serving mildly handicapped students?
 - d. What are the major components of the decision making process utilized for the placement of mildly handicapped students into special education classes?
2. To determine how Japanese special education in the public schools is implemented.

- a. What instruments are used to evaluate students for placement in special education classes?
- b. What procedures are used to place students into special education classes?
- c. To what extent are mildly handicapped students integrated with their nonhandicapped peers?
- d. Which social welfare agencies assist the public schools with mildly handicapped students?
- e. What are the current problems confronting special education in Japan?

Delimitations

The primary confinement of this study was that it was conducted in a foreign country. Other confinements included limited access to professional contacts, educational institutions and written sources of information because of a language barrier. However, these confinements were minimized by assistance from a number of resources including officials at the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science, professors from Tokyo National Teachers College, and librarians from the International House of Japan, a research facility for international scholars.

Limitations

A data gathering instrument was designed for this study. Opinions as to its appropriateness were made by

the researcher and a panel of experts involved in Japanese special education. However, no statistical tests were performed relative to the validity or reliability of the instrument.

All forms of communication were subject to misinterpretation. The researcher did not speak Japanese, but most of the officials who assisted in the development of the investigation spoke English well. However, the potential existed for communications concerning the study to be subject to some errors in meaning. An attempt to minimize this possibility was made by conducting a pilot study utilizing the panel previously mentioned.

The qualifications of the respondents participating in the survey were unknown. In Japan, job rotation within a field has been a common occurrence for many years and education has been no exception. Consequently, people who fill a particular position may occupy it with credentials and experiences that are unrelated to the job.

Justification for the Study

According to Lamb and Burrello (1979), the field of special education has been characterized as being in a constant state of disequilibrium. They stated that this condition has developed due to a clash between driving and restraining forces of change relative to the rights of

handicapped children in the schools. In making several recommendations focused on solving this problem, the authors suggested the sharing of best practices as one method of returning the field toward a more stable state of equilibrium.

As the American special education community participates in more frequent international communication, an expected outcome might be the increased sharing of managerial concepts. The strong emphasis by the Japanese on high rates of productivity and positive management practices could have some import for American special education administrators who have been searching for some redirection (Lamb & Burrello, 1979). In an era characterized by turbulence, the field of special education administration could benefit from an identification and sharing of practices from a country that has appeared to develop effective managerial and educational systems.

Assumptions

It was assumed that the development and structure of the American and Japanese public school system would be similar. This assumption was based on the fact that Americans, except for the period during World War II, had influenced many aspects of Japanese society since the time of Commodore Perry's visit to Japan in the 1850's. Since

the end of the war, the ideals, principles, and values of American education have served as the infrastructure for the Japanese education system created by the American occupation authorities after the Second World War.

Based on this assumption, it was reasoned that the structure of Japanese special education was similar to that found in America. Consequently, the investigation was structured to reflect the management and implementation of American special education. This was done with a view toward making some comparative statements concerning the two systems.

Definition of Terms

Handicapped Children: Japanese legislation defines handicapped children using similar classifications as those used in U.S. Public Law (P.L.) 94-142. The major exception is specific learning disabilities. Japanese special educators do not appear to recognize this handicap and consequently there are no school programs for it.

Special Education: P.L. 94-142 defines special education in terms of "specifically designed instruction to meet the unique needs of handicapped children." The statute cites examples of instruction along a least restrictive environment continuum ranging from classroom instruction to instruction in institutional settings. A similar range of specifically designed instructional alternatives can be found in Japan.

Compulsory Education: Compulsory education in Japan is defined as nine years of education provided to all boys and girls at no cost to parents (Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, 1982). In 1979, compulsory education was extended to include the mentally and physically handicapped, thus ending a period of exclusion from the schools for some handicapped populations (Yamaguchi, 1981).

Mental Retardation: Mental retardation is defined, for purposes of this study, as a mildly handicapping condition which would be equivalent in the United States to the special education category of educable mentally handicapped (E.M.H.).

Emotionally Handicapped: Emotionally handicapped (E.H.) is defined, for purposes of this study, as a mildly handicapping condition which would be equivalent in the United States to special education classes containing students with mild to moderate degrees of emotional handicaps.

Ministry of Education, Science and Culture: The national governmental agency of Japan responsible for education. Some of its functions include drafting legislation, monitoring school boards, and budgeting and allocating financial resources to school boards. The Elementary and Secondary Education Bureau of the Ministry has overall responsibility for special education.

National Institute of Special Education: The National Institute of Special Education is a facility under the

jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture. It has several functions relative to special education including multi-disciplinary research, inservice training for teachers, and consultation services for handicapped children and their parents.

Prefecture: Prefecture is defined as a governmental administrative district of Japan with a certain amount of autonomy from the national government, though less autonomous than states in America. There are 47 prefectural districts in Japan.

Municipality: Municipality is defined as a city ranging in population from under 30,000 to over 1 million located within prefectures and retaining some self-government rights.

CHAPTER II

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

In order to achieve the objectives which gave direction to this study, several preliminary steps were required. It was necessary to become informed about the country, to identify relevant sources of information and data, to establish a plan for acquiring the appropriate information and data, and lastly, to make decisions about organizing and reporting the material collected.

This chapter includes descriptions of the setting and subjects in the study, and it provides statements of the research objectives and questions. The development of the instrumentation is also outlined and the research procedures and data collection procedures are delineated. Finally, the organization and reporting of the data are presented.

Setting

This study was conducted in Japan. The Japanese Ministry of Education, Science and Culture (1982) has described the country as follows:

Japan is located to the east of the Asiatic Continent and between the Pacific Ocean and the Japan Sea. As Japan is an island country, for many centuries its culture was not influenced much by other countries. But over the last hundred years with advances in the means of communications the cultures of the East and West have been brought to Japan and have contributed to her cultural progress.

Japan consists of four principal islands--Houshu, Shikoku, Kyushu, and Hokkaido--and more than 3,000 smaller islands. The islands of Japan are mainly of seismic and volcanic origin. Their topography consists largely of central ranges and chains of mountains bordered by coastal plains. (p. 2)

Japan is comprised of 47 administrative governments known as prefectures. Located within the prefectures are smaller units of government which consist of cities, towns, and villages. Since the mid-1950's significant economic growth accompanied by a flow of population to the cities has resulted in a strong urbanization of the country. According to recent demographic data there are a total of 646 cities in Japan ranging in population from under 30,000 to over 1 million (International Society for Education, 1981).

The mean population of the cities that comprised the sample for the study was 344,862. This was equivalent to a medium size city in Japan (Futake, 1982).

Subjects

The subjects for this study were special education administrators employed by municipal boards of education

(local educational agencies) throughout Japan. These individuals were responsible for the administration of special education programs in their respective cities. Questionnaires were administered to a total of 56 individuals.

Research Questions

The following research questions were examined in this study:

1. To determine how Japanese special education in the public schools is managed.
 - a. Which governmental agencies are responsible for regulating special education?
 - b. Which governmental agencies are responsible for funding special education?
 - c. What prevalence rates exist for programs serving mildly handicapped students?
 - d. What are the major components of the decision making process utilized for the placement of mildly handicapped students into special education classes?
2. To determine how Japanese special education in the public schools is implemented.
 - a. What instruments are used to evaluate students for placement in special education classes?
 - b. What procedures are used to place students into special education classes?

- c. To what extent are mildly handicapped students integrated with their nonhandicapped peers?
- d. Which social welfare agencies assist the public schools with mildly handicapped students?
- e. What are the current problems confronting special education in Japan?

Instrumentation

A questionnaire was developed to facilitate the collection of data relative to the administration of Japanese special education programs. Based on the assumption that the Japanese public education system shared a similar structure and development to that found in the United States, the questionnaire was developed to reflect American practices in the management and implementation of special education. Items contained in the instrument concerned regulatory and funding practices, staffing and evaluation procedures, extent of integration, prevalence rates, identification of current problems, and the utilization of social welfare agencies outside the school system.

Questionnaire

The questionnaire (see Appendix A for English version; Appendix B for Japanese version) consisted of eight sections with each section containing several items. Items concerning

demographic information were also included requesting information about the respondent's school district: name of municipality, total population of municipality, total number of public elementary schools, total number of lower secondary schools total number of public elementary school students, total number of lower secondary school students, total number of mentally retarded students (elementary) in special classes, total number of mentally retarded students (lower secondary) in special classes, total number of emotionally disturbed students (elementary) in special classes, and total number of emotionally disturbed students (lower secondary) in special classes. Directions were concisely written on each form, so that the questionnaires were self-explanatory and maintained an anonymity for the respondents.

Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted to evaluate the questionnaire which was developed for the main study. A panel of knowledgeable individuals was assembled to participate in this phase of the research study. This panel consisted of six teachers of the emotionally handicapped employed by the Tokyo Metropolitan Government Public School System and one professor of special education employed by the Tokyo National Teacher's College (Tokyo Gakugei Daigaku). Participants were asked in a cover letter (see Appendix C and Appendix D) to evaluate the

clarity of the instrument relative to readability, spelling, usage, and punctuation. A rating scale (see Appendix E and Appendix F) was devised for this purpose. Additionally, suggestions for change were elicited using an open-ended question. The pilot instruments were mailed to the panel in the beginning of February 1983.

Following the administration of the questionnaire for the pilot study, several changes were made following the recommendations of the panel. These revisions included changes in wording, grammar, spelling, and the phrasing of instructions. The instrument was modified to reflect the appropriate changes. None of the panel members were included in the main study.

Research Procedure

It was necessary to obtain the support of an agency of the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture in order to conduct this study. Contacts were made with Mr. Takeshi Kaneko of the National Institute of Special Education, a facility under the jurisdiction of the Ministry. Ideas concerning the study were discussed with Mr. Kaneko and his superior. The questionnaire was reviewed by these gentlemen, and it was decided that support for the study was warranted. The support included a cover letter request made by the Institute for respondent cooperation in the study, the

utilization of official mailing envelopes from the Institute and follow-up efforts by Mr. Kaneko to increase the number of questionnaires returned.

Following the acquisition of support from members of the Institute, locations throughout Japan were selected for inclusion in the study. A two-step procedure was used. First, 12 prefectures were identified on the basis of demographic characteristics (i.e., population, urban/rural). Then approximately 25 percent of the municipalities (cities) of each prefecture were identified from The Japan Cities Annual Report (1980). This resulted in the selection of 56 cities or approximately 9 percent of the cities in Japan (International Society for Educational Information, 1981).

Data Collection

On February 28, 1983, the survey instrument was reproduced and distributed to 56 cities (see Appendix G) with a cover letter (see Appendix H and Appendix I) from the National Institute for Special Education and a postage paid return envelope. From this request, 27 responses were returned of which two were unanswered.

The week of March 21, 1983, a second effort to request responses was made on the telephone by Mr. Takeshi Kaneko of the National Institute of Special Education (see Appendix J). Telephone was the preferred method of making these requests for two reasons. First, the Japanese school year

was ending at the end of March and time was of the essence. Second, most Japanese public school administrators changed their positions at the end of the school year, and this tended to impede written communications. As a result of Mr. Kaneko's efforts, an additional three responses were received establishing a total of 28 responses or a 53.6 percent return rate. No additional attempts were made to elicit data.

Data Treatment

The acquired data from the questionnaires were analyzed through basic descriptive statistical techniques such as measures of central tendency, measures of dispersion, and percentages. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (Nie, Hull, Jenkins, Steinbrenner, & Brent, 1975) was utilized to process the data.

Organization of the Study by Chapters

The report of the data collected is organized into five chapters. Chapter I contains the introduction, problem statement, delimitations and limitations, justification for the study, assumptions, and definitions. Chapter II deals with the methods and procedures used to conduct the study, and it includes a description of the setting and subjects, a restatement of the research questions, information regarding instrumentation, research procedures, data collection and analysis. Chapter III focuses on the development of

special education in Japan within the context of the historical development of a modern public school system in that country. Chapter IV presents the presentation and analysis of data relative to the specific characteristics of administering special education programs in Japan. The last chapter, Chapter V, includes the summary, conclusions, and discussion.

CHAPTER III

THE DEVELOPMENT OF JAPANESE SPECIAL EDUCATION

From Feudal to Modern Times

Prior to 1872, which marks the beginning of its modernization period, Japan had been a feudal society for almost 300 years. The nation was governed by local lords (shoguns) who ruled their feifs much as the feudal lords did in Europe. During this period, Japan was characterized by strong decentralization of authority and factionalism even though a centralized, authority figure, the emperor, existed. Education in Japan at this time, known as the Tokugawa period, had similar characteristics. There were many decentralized factions including religious groups, shoguns, commoners, and tradesmen that established schools to educate their children. [By 1872, however, Japan had emerged as a modern nation, and the top priority of government was a modern, centralized system of education (Kituhara, 1971)].

This period of Japanese history which began in the late 19th century was known as the Meiji Restoration. Essentially, this meant that more centralized forms of authority controlled Japanese society. Powerful government ministries were responsible for exercising this power and reshaping [Japan into a modern nation based on western ideas] and

technology. Among these was the Imperial Japanese Ministry of Education headed by an American, Dr. David Murray of Rutgers University. It was the mission of the new ministry and its new Superintendent, Dr. Murray, to establish a modern, national school system for Japan based on imported western ideas. According to Trainor (1983), "in its first crisis of establishment, the educational system of modern Japan was greatly influenced by a representative of American education" (p. 3).

The Development of Special Education
From the Meiji Period to the Taisho Period

One of the first acts during the establishment period in 1872 was the development of rules and regulations concerning special education schools. Egami (1981), however, reported that the Gakusei, a Ministry of Education ordinance, merely indicated the desirability of establishing schools for the disabled. (As in the United States during the 18th and 19th centuries, the education of the Japanese handicapped was thought to be almost impossible and had been neglected by existing governments of the time.) It was not until the end of the 1800s that both countries made serious efforts to educate their handicapped citizens (Tsujimura, 1975). They initiated these efforts with programs for the blind and deaf. Tsujimura (1975) described the beginning of Japanese special education as follows:

The key to the western approach to school education for the blind and deaf was that educating the seemingly uneducable becomes possible with the application of special methods, and as this approach was introduced into our country, sporadic attempts began to be made to educate the blind and deaf from about 1880. (p. 4)

The late 19th century was also a period in which the governments of the United States and Japan made a strong commitment to compulsory education laws (National Advisory Committee on the Handicapped, 1976; Tsujimura, 1975). The education authorities of both countries focused their attention on the problem of serving children with different types of handicapping conditions. As a result, organizational approaches were sought for educating these youngsters who were new to the public school system and no longer the responsibility of institutions.

Like the United States, Japan initiated special education programs with the establishment of schools for the blind and deaf before providing education for children who suffered from other handicaps (Egami, 1981; Ogamo, 1978). It was not until the mid-1890s, however, that both countries found an approach to educating the mentally handicapped in the public schools. Beginning in the 1850s Germany had initiated in its public schools special day classes for retarded children. It was this concept that was ultimately adapted and utilized to establish special

classes in the public schools of the United States and Japan. Interestingly, both countries started day classes in the same year, i.e., 1896 (National Advisory Committee on the Handicapped, 1976; Tsujimura, 1975). With the advent of this programming innovation, these countries began the movement away from segregated, institutional care for the handicapped and toward more visibility for them in their societies

The late 19th century and early 20th century was an era of progress for special education in the United States and Japan. However, sustaining it proved to be difficult. In the decades that followed, the governments of these two countries fell into a period of neglect concerning the handicapped. In the United States, the education of handicapped Americans was viewed as the primary responsibility of private charitable organizations. Government agencies had little involvement with the concerns of those who were mentally or physically disabled. LaVor (1976) stated that there was a dearth of federal government involvement in legislation for the handicapped between the period of 1879 to 1918. The National Advisory Committee on the Handicapped (NACH) (1976) noted a similar lack of involvement by government as expressed in the attitude of the time.

whether education was made available to
handicapped children depended on the affluence
and benevolence of the community. For this

and other reasons . . . relatively few handicapped children received any schooling at all. (p. 10)

Handicapped youngsters who were not in institutions were routinely excluded from the public schools by state and local education agencies. These children, who were perceived by some Americans as inferior, were denied access to an appropriate public education. Reynolds and Birch (1977) described the attitude toward the handicapped in America as a pervasive neglect based on certain ideas of the time. Such ideas included misinformation concerning genetics, criminal tendencies, and the refusal of parents to acknowledge the problems of their handicapped children.

Japan experienced similar problems. Tsujimura (1975) reported a period of stagnation and decline for special education during the turn of the century. Ogamo (1978) reported a period of attitudinal neglect in Japan during the 1920's. This was a period in which education authorities thought exclusion of the handicapped from compulsory education was considered appropriate. The Japanese, as did the Americans, perceived the handicapped as inferior. In describing this period, Ogamo (1978) wrote

It was felt that these children should be handled by charities and volunteer services, or if they attended ordinary elementary schools, were treated as exceptionally inferior pupils. (p. 7)

Similar to the attitude found in the United States, the problems of the retarded and other handicapped Japanese

children were considered to be the responsibility of charities and hospitals rather than one of the public schools (Kitahara, 1971; Ogamo, 1978).

Post World War II Educational Reforms

During the 1930's and 1940's the education of handicapped youngsters came to a standstill in Japan because it did not contribute to the military effort (Tsujimura, 1975). Melcher (1976) noted the same retrenchment in America during the Second World War. He described the expansion of special education as being kept to a trickle due to the focus on winning the war. However, efforts to revitalize the field seemed to commence almost as soon as the war concluded for the United States. A rebuilding process also commenced for Japanese special education at the same time. According to Egami (1981), special education was included in the recommended reforms of the Japanese education system made after the war by an American group of educators. Egami (1981) cited the 1946 report by the United States Education Mission to Japan which stated

Attention should be given, at appropriate levels, to physically handicapped and mentally retarded children. Several classes or schools should be provided for the blind and deaf and for other seriously handicapped children whose needs cannot be met adequately in the regular schools. Attendance should be governed by the regular compulsory attendance law. (p. 13)

According to Egami (1981), this recommendation greatly influenced the enactment of Japanese legislation for the handicapped during the occupation period by United States forces.

The Constitution of Japan

The major task facing the United States during the occupation period was the reconstruction of Japanese society based on the principles of democracy. In order to accomplish this task, a Constitution based on American concepts and values was created which described the democratic goals of the new Japanese society. Relative to one aspect of the new society, the Constitution of Japan, promulgated on November 3, 1946, set forth basic national education policy. Article 26 of the Constitution, as cited by the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture (1982) stated

All people shall have the right to receive an equal education correspondent to their ability, as provided by law. The people shall be obligated to have all boys and girls under their protection receive ordinary education as provided for by law. Such compulsory education shall be free. (p. 8)

Influenced by the United States Constitution, the Japanese Constitution promoted the principle of equal protection under the law and applied it to education.

The Fundamental Law of Education

Legislation known as the Fundamental Law of Education (Kyōiku Kihon Ho) promulgated in 1947, set forth in more detail the aims and principles of education in accordance with the Japanese Constitution (Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, 1982). Egami (1981) stated that the provisions of this law emphasized equal educational opportunity for all the people of Japan according to their abilities and without regard to any form of discrimination. The Fundamental Law provided the rationale for the concept that all handicapped children were entitled to receive an education suited to their needs and abilities.

The School Education Law

It was a law derived from the Fundamental Law of Education that actually dealt with the organization and management of the Japanese education system. The legislation, known as the School Education Law of 1947, had the most drastic impact on the general system of education in modern Japan. According to Trainor (1983) its enactment provided a new school ladder for Japan and as a result greater equality of educational opportunity. He described several major changes in the system including the replacement of the old multi-track system of specialized schools with a single track system, the development of a 6-3 3-4 system similar to that found in America and the decentralization

of educational authority. All of these reforms were designed to broaden the educational alternatives for all students and reform the methodology of education created during the war (Trainor, 1983).

Of importance to all the handicapped youngsters of Japan was the provision of the School Education Law that made school attendance compulsory at the elementary and lower secondary levels (Egami, 1981; Trainor, 1983). Prior to the enactment of the law the principal of establishing compulsory schooling for the blind and deaf within the public school system was established in 1923 with the promulgation of the School for the Blind and School for the Deaf-Dumb Ordinance (Egami, 1981; Ogamo, 1978). By the time the School Education Law was enacted in 1947, there were enough schools for the blind and deaf to enforce a compulsory education system for the elementary department during the 1948 academic year (Egami, 1981; Kitahara, 1971). This was not the case for children with other mentally or physically handicapping conditions. Little had been done to provide these children with educational programs and services. Although the School Education Law had established the principle of compulsory education for all handicapped children, the enforcement of this provision for those children who were not deaf or blind was delayed. Tsujimura (1980) wrote that the chaos and scarcity after the war coupled

with the required changes for regular education made the education of the mentally and physically handicapped a low governmental priority.

The Post War Expansion

In the 25 years following the School Education Law, the economic prosperity of the United States and Japan provided an environment in which activities relative to handicapped children increased. Reynolds and Birch (1971) cited several reasons for this in the United States such as the activities of organized parent groups, state and federal legislative action, and an increase in teacher preparation programs for special education personnel. In Japan, organized parent groups and legislation also provided the impetus for improving the quality of education for handicapped youngsters. Tsujimura (1975, 1980) described the crucial role of Japanese parents, especially mothers, in lobbying government officials and backing legislation which promoted education for the handicapped. One of the most important pieces of legislation they supported was the Special Measures Law for General Provision of Public Schools for the Handicapped (Kōritsu Yōgo Gakkō Seibi Tokubetsu Sochi Hō) enacted in 1956. This legislation initiated great expansion of special education programs and resulted in two positive outcomes. First, it provided governmental subsidies for facilities, teacher salaries, and instructional materials (Egami, 1981;

Ogamo, 1978; Tsujimura, 1980). Second, equalization of funding for regular and special education programs was realized. A large increase in the number of special schools and classes followed. By the end of the 1960's, they had quadrupled in number. The positive outcomes produced by the Special Measures Law reinforced even stronger parental demands for compulsory education of mentally and physically handicapped youngsters.

The decade of 1970's was a period in which the rights of the handicapped children to a free, appropriate public education came to fruition in the laws of the United States. According to LaVor (1976) several significant pieces of federal legislation were enacted in the early 1970's which made the concept of equal opportunity for all handicapped youngsters more accessible and inclusive. By the mid 1970's, landmark legislation in the form of Public Law 94-142, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act, set forth as national policy the fundamental right of the handicapped to receive an education (National Advisory Committee on the Handicapped, 1976).

In the early 1970's, a similar phenomena concerning the education of handicapped children was occurring in Japan. The primary focus of Japanese special education was to secure compulsory education for those handicapped children who had experienced its delay since the promulgation of the School Education Law of 1947. To accomplish this, several

multi-year government plans and actions contributed to the increased accessibility of educational facilities, programs, and services (Yamaguchi, 1981). Specific targets were set for the establishment of special schools, special classes, and for increasing enrollment. Finally, in 1973, the government issued a landmark ordinance which set 1979 as the year in which compulsory education for all handicapped youngsters was to be implemented (Egami, 1981; Yamaguchi, 1981). Thus 26 years after the School Education Law had been enacted and 100 years after the inauguration of special education in Japan compulsory education for the handicapped became a reality.

Summary

During the 1870's, Japan emerged as a modern nation and created a modern, centralized school system. One of the government's first acts during this establishment period was the development of regulations which provided for educating the handicapped. The Japanese initiated special education for their citizens based on western pedagogical ideas of the late 19th century. Since that time, the planning and development of special education in the United States and Japan has pursued a similar course. Both countries experienced similar patterns of decline and upswing of public interest in the educational needs of the

handicapped. These changing patterns similarly influenced the direction of public education policy in both countries. By the 1970's, the United States and Japan had focused resources on increasing the number and availability of educational programs and services for handicapped children.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The management and implementation of special education programs in the public schools of Japan was examined by the investigator. Data describing some specific characteristics of these areas were collected. In the area of management, the characteristics included the regulation and funding of special education, the rates of prevalence for mildly handicapping conditions, and the major components of the decision making process. Relative to implementation, they were the identification of instruments used for evaluations, the identification of placement procedures, the extent of integration, the utilization of auxiliary agencies, and the status of current problems confronting Japanese special education. The results of this investigation are reported below.

Management

Respondents were requested to indicate the extent to which they believed special education was regulated and

funded by various levels of government. Their responses were recorded on a Likert-type scale indicating the extent of their opinion concerning several areas. A summary of those opinions is presented in Table 1.

An analysis of the data indicated that municipal boards of education were believed to be the primary organizations responsible for exercising authority over special education. When asked about the regulation of the field, approximately three-quarters (70.0 percent) of the respondents indicated that municipal boards regulated special education. A similar response pattern (73.3 percent) was obtained relative to responsibility for funding. Prefectural boards of education were also perceived as having an influence (63.3 percent) in both of these areas. Similarly, no respondents indicated that prefectural and municipal boards were involved to a small extent in regulation and funding.

To obtain an estimate of prevalence rates for mildly mentally retarded and mildly emotionally handicapped students, several questions were asked. These concerned the number of referrals, evaluations, and placements for special education programs. Respondents were requested to indicate annual data for each question. Unfortunately, the response to these questions was limited. This resulted in data which appeared not to be substantive and did not lend itself to analysis. Consequently, an estimate of prevalence rates for mildly handicapped students was not obtained in this investigation.

Table 1
Governance of Special Education by Different
Levels of Government

Extent to which special education is regulated by:	<u>Cumulative Percentage</u>				
	Great Extent				Small Extent
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
National Government	23.3	40.0	70.0	93.3	100.0
Ministry of Education, Science and Culture	26.7	43.3	76.7	96.7	100.0
Judiciary	8.0	16.0	40.0	56.0	100.0
Prefectural Boards of Education	16.7	63.3	90.0	100.0	-
Municipal Board of Education	33.3	70.0	93.3	100.0	-
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Extent to which special education is funded by:					
National Government	10.0	40.0	76.7	93.3	100.0
Prefectural Board of Education	16.7	63.3	90.0	100.0	-
Municipal Boards of Education	23.3	73.3	86.7	96.7	100.0

Note: Percentages are based on the individuals who answered the items, i.e., N = 28 on all items except Judiciary (N = 23).

The major components of decision making relative to special education were examined from several aspects. Identifying the members of a staffing committee utilized by the cities that responded was one. In Japan, these committees were identified as school attendance guidance committees. Their purpose was to evaluate and place students into special education schools and classes. The most commonly reported participants in these meetings are presented in Table 2.

An analysis of the data in Table 2 indicated that most members of the school attendance guidance committees were professionals. Principals were identified by almost all (96.7 percent) of the respondents. Special education teachers and medical doctors were identified by 93.3 percent of the respondents and Directors of Special Education by more than three-quarters (86.7 percent) of the respondents. Parents, regular education teachers, and Directors of Elementary/Secondary Education, and school psychologists were identified by 16.7 percent of the cities. Social workers and guidance counselors were probably identified by the fewest (3.3 percent) participants because the position of social worker did not exist in Japanese public schools and guidance counselor positions were limited in number.

Determining how frequently school attendance guidance committees met and the length of time allocated to each case

Table 2
Percent of Respondents Identifying Members of
Staffing Committees in Japan

Members of Evaluation/Placement Committees at the Municipality Level	Adjusted Percentage
Principals	96.7
Special Education Teacher	93.3
Medical Doctor	93.3
Director of Special Education	86.7
Welfare Case Worker	63.3
University Psychologist	50.0
Regular Education Teacher	26.7
Others	23.3
Parents	16.7
School Psychologist	16.7
School Nurse	16.7
Director of Elementary/Secondary Education	16.7
Student	6.7
Guidance Counselor	3.3
Social Worker	3.3

Note: N = 28.

being considered was also of interest. An analysis of the data in Table 3 indicated that these committees convened at various times throughout the school year. An equal number of respondents (23.5 percent) indicated that quarterly and semi-annual meetings were most likely to occur. More than one-third (43.3 percent) of the respondents reported that they met frequently at times other than those listed on the questionnaire. Included in this category were these time periods: (1) the last half of the school year (i.e., October to March); (2) the last quarter of the school year (i.e., January to March; and (3) as often as needed. Very few (3.3 percent) indicated that meetings occurred twice a month and none indicated once a week. Almost three-quarters (73.3 percent) of the respondents reported that they spent between an average of one to five hours per case.

Implementation

To determine the instruments used to detect the presence of a handicap in students evaluated for educable mentally handicapped and mildly emotionally handicapped programs, respondents were asked to select from a list of tests and rating scales those used in the evaluation process. The extent to which various instruments are used is presented in Table 4.

Table 3

Percent of Municipalities Indicating the Frequency
of Staffing Committee Meetings and Average Time
Spent on Cases in Japan

Average Frequency of Meetings	Relative Percentage
Once a week	0.0
Once a month	13.3
Twice a month	3.3
Quarterly	23.3
Semi-annually	23.3
Yearly	0.0
Other times	43.3
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Average Time Spent on Each Case	Relative Percentage
1 - 5 hours	73.3
6 - 10 hours	13.3
Others	10.0
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Note: Percentages are based on the individuals who
answered the items, N = 28.

Table 4

Percent of Respondents Indicating Use of Instruments
for Evaluating Exceptional Students

Instrument	Adjusted Percentage	
	MR Placements	FMH Placements
WISC-R	76.7	63.3
Stanford-Binet-Suzuki Intelligence Scales	60.0	46.7
Other Intelligence Tests	53.3	33.3
Teacher Made Achievement Tests	13.3	10.0
Peabody Individual Achievement Test	0.0	0.0
Wide Range Achievement Test	0.0	0.0
Other Standardized Achievement Test	3.3	3.3
AAMD - Adaptive Behavior Scale	6.7	3.3
Vineland Test of Social Maturity	23.3	40.0
Social Maturity Test	10.0	6.7
Other Daily Living Rating Scales	3.3	0.0
Deveraux Child Behavior Scale	0.0	0.0
Hewett Behavior Rating Scale	0.0	0.0
Other Behavior Rating Scale	13.3	13.3
Thematic Apperception Test	20.0	23.3
House-Tree-Person	3.3	13.3
Other Projective Tests	53.3	33.3
Enjozi-Shiki Developmental Test	33.3	26.7
Tsumori-Shiki Developmental Test	13.3	16.7
K-Shiki Developmental Test	10.0	6.7

Analysis of the data in Table 4 indicated that several types of instruments were used for evaluating those students being considered for E.M.H. classes. Approximately three-quarters of the respondents (76.7 percent) reported using the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children - Revised and over half (60.0 percent) used the Stanford-Binet-Suzuki Intelligence Scales. Over half the respondents (53.3 percent) also indicated the use of projective tests not listed on the questionnaire. For one-third (33.3 percent) of the cities responding, it was reported that the use of a Japanese developmental test known as the Enjozi-Shiki Developmental Test was common and in less than one-third (23.3 percent) the Vineland Test of Social Maturity was used as a measure of daily living skills.

Similarly, several types of instruments were used in the diagnosis of E.H. students. Over half (63.3 percent) of the respondents indicated using the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children - Revised and less than half (46.7 percent) administered the Stanford-Binet-Suzuki Intelligence Scales. In more than one-third (40.0 percent) of the cities use of the Vineland Test of Social Maturity as a measure of daily living skills was indicated and in one-third (33.3 percent) projective tests not listed on the questionnaire were used.

Of particular interest was that daily living rating scales were used by more respondents to diagnose an emotional

handicap rather than a mental handicap (40.0 percent versus 23.3 percent). In contrast, projective tests were utilized by more than half (53.3 percent) of the sample to diagnose the presence of a mental handicap, while only one-third (33.3 percent) used this type of instrument to diagnose emotional handicaps. Tests of academic achievement did not appear to be used in many locations.

The procedures utilized to place students into special education classes were examined. The respondents were asked to select from a list of activities those which were utilized in placing E.M.H. and mildly E.H. students. Table 5 contains the tabulation of responses for this question.

In 96.7 percent of the cities included in the responding sample, conferences between parents and school personnel and the appointment of evaluation/placement committees were used in placing those students classified as E.M.H. Other activities used for this purpose by many cities included observations in the regular classroom (80.0 percent) and the administration of an intelligence test (76.7 percent). Respondents also indicated that one-half (50.0 percent) conducted tests of sensory functioning and a limited number (16.7 percent) developed individual educational plans as part of their placement procedures.

For placements in E.H. classes the results were similar. Conferences occurred in 93.3 percent of the cities, the

Table 5

Percent of Respondents Indicating Use of Various
Activities in the Placement of Exceptional Students
into Special Education Programs in Japan

Activity	Adjusted Percentage	
	M.R. Placements	E.H. Placements
Conference between school and parents	96.7	93.3
Observations in the regular classroom	80.0	83.3
Interventions in the regular classroom	16.7	20.0
Appointment of evaluation/ placement committee	96.7	86.7
Administration of sensory funding tests	50.0	56.7
Administration of a medical examination	46.7	53.3
Administration of an intelligence test	76.7	63.3
Administration of an academic achievement test	30.0	20.0
Administration of a daily living rating scale (M.R.)	50.0	46.7
Administration of a behavioral rating scale (E.H.)	50.0	46.7
Development of an individual educational plan	16.7	16.7

appointment of evaluation/placement committees in 96.7 percent of the locations, observations in 83.3 percent, and the administration of an intelligence test by 86.7 percent of the locations. As with placements for E.M.H. students, only 16.7 percent developed individual educational plans in their placement procedure for E.H. students.

One of the major goals of special education in the United States has been the implementation of the least restrictive environment concept for handicapped students. In order to determine the extent of this phenomena in Japan, questions concerning to what extent mildly handicapped and emotionally handicapped students were integrated with their nonhandicapped peers were addressed. Almost three-quarters (70.0 percent) of the respondents indicated that educable mentally retarded students experienced integration with nonhandicapped students. While more than one-half (60.0 percent) of the respondents believed that mildly emotionally handicapped students were integrated with students in regular education classes.

To ascertain which agencies outside of the public school system provided assistance to students in special classes, several types of services were listed on the questionnaire. Respondents were requested to indicate one or more agencies that functioned as service providers. The extent to which the selected agencies were believed functional in special education is found in Table 6.

Table 6

Agencies Outside of the Japanese Public School
System which Provided Services for Students
in Special Classes

Type of Service	Agency Responsible	Adjusted Percentage
Psychological Evaluation and Diagnostics	Child Guidance Clinics	46.9
Psychiatric Evaluation and Diagnostics	Hospitals	61.3
Vocational Rehabilitation	Sheltered Workshop	38.5
Mental Health Counseling	Child Guidance Clinics	24.0
Medical Care	Hospital	65.0
Financial Support	Municipal Government	50.0

An analysis of the data indicated that several types of agencies provided auxiliary services for Japanese special education students. Almost one-half (46.9 percent) of those responding indicated the child guidance clinics provided psychological services and more than one-half (61.3 percent) indicated that hospitals provided psychiatric services. Vocational rehabilitation was perceived by more than one-third (38.5 percent) of the respondents as being provided by local government sponsored sheltered workshops. More than one-half (65.0 percent) of the respondents reported that hospitals were the providers of medical care and one-half of them reported that local governments provided financial support for handicapped students.

To determine the perceived problems facing special educators in Japan, respondents were requested to rank order 12 problems which were listed on the instrument. Problems assigned a rank of 1 were considered most important and the rank of 12 was the least important. Any problems not listed were elicited using the category of others. The data indicating perceived importance of these problems are presented in Table 7.

An analysis of the results in Table 7 indicated that perceptions of the most important problems appeared to be in the areas of personnel, parents, and inservice. Locating enough university trained special education teachers was

Table 7
Important Problems Perceived by Special Educators
in Japan

Problem	Mean Ranking
Locating special education teachers	3.6
Obtaining parent cooperation	4.1
Providing inservice training to special education teachers	4.3
Locating appropriate curricula	4.4
Integration or "Mainstreaming"	5.8
Developing appropriate educational diagnoses	5.9
Locating appropriate instructional materials	6.7
Lack of school psychologists	7.5
Lack of guidance counselors	8.4
Lack of appropriate facilities	8.8
Locating appropriate tests	8.8
Lack of school social workers	8.9

ranked as the most important problem ($\bar{X} = 3.6$). Obtaining parent cooperation followed with an average ranking of 4.1. The average ranking for providing inservice training to special education teachers was 4.3.

The lowest ranked problems were reported in the areas of tests, facilities, and student service personnel. The average ranking for locating appropriate tests and lack of appropriate facilities were both 8.8. The low rankings assigned to lack of school psychologists and school social workers was understandable because none of these positions exist in the school system of Japan. The position of guidance counselor was allocated to junior high schools and high schools but only on a part-time basis. The remaining time spent by guidance counselors was in the role of regular classroom teacher. According to information given to the investigator, guidance counselors in the public school system did not work with handicapped students.

Summary

Data describing the administration of Japanese special education programs were presented in this chapter. Several specific characteristics concerning the management and implementation of these programs in Japan emerged from these results.

The management of special education appears to be controlled at the local educational agency level. Regulation and funding were perceived to be the functions of municipal boards of education. Staffing committees at the local level made decisions concerning the evaluation and placement of students into special education schools and classes. The staffing committees met on a regular basis and were primarily composed of professional educators and physicians. They spent an average of one to five hours per case during the course of their meetings.

The implementation of special education was examined from several perspectives. First, several types of standardized tests and rating scales were used to evaluate students being considered for special program placement. Second, a set of procedures was followed before placing a student into a special program. Third, a moderate degree of integration existed between handicapped and nonhandicapped students. Fourth, social welfare agencies were resources utilized by the public school system for implementation of special programs. Lastly, special education was confronted by a number of problems which included locating specially trained teachers, obtaining parent cooperation, and providing inservice training.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND DISCUSSION

Summary

The purpose of this study was to provide information regarding the management and implementation of special education classes for mildly handicapped students in the public schools in Japan. To accomplish this purpose, two objectives and accompanying questions were specified in order to collect and analyze the data.

The rationale for undertaking this study was the perceived need to identify and to share special education practices in Japan with special education administrators in the United States. Recent events concerning the rights of handicapped children in American public schools have resulted in a state of managerial disequilibrium characterized by clashes between driving and restraining forces of change. The sharing of best practices has been suggested as a strategy which could contribute to the amelioration of this trend. In a search for redirection, American special education might look to Japan for this purpose. Its

reputation for educational and managerial achievement could enable American special education administrators to benefit from the sharing of identification and placement practices which could have implications for redirecting American special education toward a state of equilibrium.

The major means of data collection was a questionnaire. In order to ascertain the clarity of the instrument, a pilot study was conducted by a panel of knowledgeable, Japanese special education professionals. After the instrument was reviewed and critiqued by the panel, it was modified in accordance with their recommendations and then distributed to 56 locations or approximately 9 percent of the cities throughout Japan. Efforts were made by telephone to solicit additional responses after the first returns were received. As a result of these efforts, a 53.6 percent return rate was achieved. Several major findings emerged from this investigation relative to management and implementation of special education programs.

Concerning the management of Japanese special education, it was found that municipal boards of education (local educational agencies) were primarily responsible for regulating and funding special education; prefectural boards of education had a slightly lesser role; and the national government was perceived as playing a limited role in these areas. It was also learned that staffing committees

existed in the public schools and were utilized for purposes of placing students into special education classes. They were identified as school attendance guidance committees composed primarily of education and medical professionals. These committees convened frequently at various times during the year including the last half of the school year, the last quarter of the school year, and as the need arose. The average time spent on each case considered by the committee was one to five hours.

One major finding related to implementation was that several types of instruments were used to evaluate students being considered for special class placement. For both the E.M. H. and E.H. programs, the Wechsler Intelligence Scales for Children--Revised and Stanford Binet Suzuki Intelligence Scales were used. Of particular interest was the use of daily living skills measures for evaluating emotional handicaps and the use of projective tests for evaluating mental handicaps. Very few respondents indicated the use of academic achievement tests for evaluating the presence of either handicapping condition.

Another finding was that several procedures were undertaken in order to place handicapped students into special classes. Some of the procedures used for placing E.M.H. students most often identified were these: a conference between parents and school personnel, the

appointment of a staffing committee the administration of intelligence tests and tests of sensory functioning. For E.H. placements, the procedures most frequently identified were the same. Very few respondents indicated that individual educational plans were used for either category of special class placement.

Some additional findings regarding implementation were that a moderate degree of integration existed for students in both E.M.H. and E.H. programs. Agencies, such as child guidance clinics, hospitals sheltered workshops, and local government bureaus provided auxiliary services for students in special education classes. Problems confronting special educators in Japan related to personnel, parents, and inservice.

Conclusions and Discussion

Based on the findings of this study regarding the management and implementation of Japanese special education classes several conclusions appeared warranted. First, the pattern of regulatory and fiscal management in Japan was similar to that found in the United States where three levels of government shared responsibilities. Martin (1978) identified federal, state, and local governments in America as responsible for laws concerning the education of handicapped children. Marinelli (1976) cited the President's Commission

on School Finance which recommended that federal funds be used to supplement the contributions of state and local governments in the funding of special education programs. Similar to the United States, local control of education was prevalent in Japan. Municipal boards of education (local educational agencies) were perceived as exerting the most immediate impact in the areas of regulation and finance, followed by prefectural boards of education (intermediate educational agencies), and the national government. The rationale for decentralized control of schools was developed by the occupation authorities who restructured the Japanese education system in order to prevent the abuses of the militaristic centralized school system that existed during the war (Trainor, 1983). As a result, municipal boards of education were charged with administering the elementary and secondary schools which contained special education classes. They were also given the power to expend the greatest percentage of funds allocated for public education in Japan (Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, 1983).

Second, some components of the decision making process utilized to place students into special classes were similar in both countries. A staffing committee was the format utilized to make decisions. Yamaguchi (1981) and Turnbull, Strickland, and Brantley (1978) described the widespread

use of these committees throughout Japan and the United States, respectively. Committees in both countries were composed of multi-disciplinary teams of professionals and parents. The primary function of the committees was to collect evaluation data and to make placement decisions. In the United States, Turnbull et al. (1978) and Sherr (1979) identified potential members of the staffing committee as those defined by the unique needs of the child. These members included special educators, regular educators, psychologists, guidance counselors, therapists, parents, social workers, etc. In Japan, Yamaguchi (1981) identified members as including psychiatrists, pediatricians, orthopedic surgeons and psychologists. He also indicated that staffing committees may select from a considerable number of specialists as committee members. In contrast to the United States, it appeared that medical doctors played a greater role on staffing committees in Japan.

Third, several instruments used for evaluating special needs students in Japan were similar to those used in the United States. These included the Weschler Intelligence Scale for Children--Revised, Stanford-Binet-Suzuki Intelligence Scales, and the Vineland Test of Social Maturity. Additionally, some of the evaluation procedures utilized in Japan met standards for evaluation specified in P.L. 94 142. First, a provision was made for the

establishment of multidisciplinary teams to conduct evaluations. Second, several types of instruments were used to assess specific areas of educational need. However, in contrast to the provision of P.L. 94-142 which specified that tests and evaluation materials must be validated for the specific purpose for which they are used, there was a noticeable difference relative to procedures implemented in the United States. It appeared that students being considered for E.M.H. placement in Japanese schools were administered projective tests usually incorporated into E.H. evaluations in the United States. Similarly, students being considered for E.H. placement in Japan were evaluated using daily living scales usually included in E.M.H. evaluations in America. One possible explanation for this difference appeared to be in the perception of these categories by Japanese special educators. Several of them stated to the researcher that the classifications of E.M.H. and E.H. were not as differentiated as in the United States. At times, both groups were mixed for instructional purposes. Supporting this contention was Kitahara (1971), who acknowledged problems concerning definitions of handicaps found in Japan. The ability to distinguish the extent of these handicaps was also recognized as a concern (Yamaguchi, 1981). It may be concluded that although E.M.H. and E.H. programs existed in Japan they were not as defined as those found in the United States.

Fourth, the sequence of the procedures utilized to place students into special classes was somewhat similar to those utilized in the United States. Turnbull et al. (1978) outlined the sequence of staffing committee activities in several steps including coordination of the staffing process, reviewing the referral, obtaining consent for evaluation, sharing evaluation information and activities related to the individual educational program (I.E.P.) In Japan, most of these steps were followed except the development of an I.E.P. The researcher was informed by Japanese special educators that I.E.P.s were not utilized in special education.

Fifth, the integration of nonhandicapped and mildly handicapped youngsters existed in Japan. Fears regarding integration, popularly known as "mainstreaming," appeared to be the same in both nations following the implementation of compulsory education laws for the handicapped. Cole and Dunn (1977) described the fear of special educators in America concerning the placement of children into traditional classrooms without any form of support. Tsujimura (1980) described a similar concern in Japan. In both cases, it was suggested that integration should be based on the characteristics of the child and the educational setting.

Sixth, personnel preparation and inservice training were perceived as major problems confronting Japanese special

education. Both Japan and the United States have experienced shortages in manpower due to the impact of legislation requiring compulsory education for all handicapped children. Harvey (1976) and Schofer (1978) reported the need for increased numbers of personnel in American special education to meet the mandates of P.L. 94-142. Yamaguchi (1981) and Tsujimura (1980) indicated a similar need resulting from compulsory education legislation in Japan. They stated that the number of university teacher training programs at undergraduate and graduate levels in Japan was limited and that inservice training needed to be strengthened.

Seventh, a system of welfare agencies existed which provided a range of services to handicapped students in special classes. According to Senoo (1981), it was the Child Welfare Law promulgated in 1947, that established facilities and services for the mentally retarded. The enactment of this law initiated a network of child guidance centers scattered throughout Japan to address the problems of childhood. Tsujimura (1975) described some of the functions of these centers as furnishing evaluations, counseling, and assisting in the placement of children into appropriate facilities. Recent statistics indicated that 162 child guidance clinics were used for psychological evaluations and diagnostics which were usually performed by school psychologists in the United States.

Other types of social agencies in Japan were similar to the United States in their responsibilities for service delivery to the handicapped. Sheltered workshops were available for vocational rehabilitation. Psychiatric evaluations were administered by hospitals. Municipal government agencies provided financial assistance.

The Future

The progress of special education in Japan during the last century has raised expectations for even more in the future. As in the United States, the rapid growth of special education in Japan has created needs that have not been met for those concerned with the field. Therefore, similar problems in both countries await attention.

In Japan, several trends are becoming evident due to the growth of special education. First, due to current manpower requirements preservice training and inservice training will need to be improved in quantity and quality. Yamaguchi (1981) has emphasized this especially at the graduate level. Second, compulsory education of the handicapped has focused attention on the need to establish early intervention, preschool programs, and better opportunities for the handicapped after they leave the school system. As in the United States, these areas have not received much attention. Finally, compulsory education

will require more emphasis on the education of all the severely mentally and physically handicapped. In the future, an increased number of trained personnel will need to be developed in order to teach these students and to coordinate educational, medical, and welfare services.

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APPENDIX A

A QUESTIONNAIRE PERTAINING TO A SURVEY OF SELECTED
CHARACTERISTICS OF THE ADMINISTRATION OF SPECIAL
EDUCATION CLASSES IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF JAPAN
(ENGLISH VERSION)

As much as possible, please answer a-j for the 1981-82 school year.

- a. Name of Municipality: _____
- b. Total Population of Municipality: _____
- c. Total Number of Public Elementary Schools in Municipality: _____
- d. Total Number of Public Lower Secondary Schools in Municipality: _____
- e. Total Number of Public Elementary School Students in Municipality: _____
- f. Total Number of Public Lower Secondary School Students in Municipality: _____
- g. Total Number of Mentally Retarded Students (Elementary) in Special Classes: _____
- h. Total Number of Mentally Retarded Students (Lower Secondary) in Special Classes: _____
- i. Total Number of Emotionally Disturbed Students (Elementary) in Special Classes: _____
- j. Total Number of Emotionally Disturbed Students (Lower Secondary) in Special Classes: _____

*Please Note: For purposes of this questionnaire, emotionally disturbed is defined as those students who exhibit significant emotional and behavioral disorders but who are not retarded

1. Please circle the number which indicates your opinion for each question.

1 = great extent
5 = small extent

- a. To what extent is special education regulated by the national government. 1 2 3 4 5
- b. To what extent is special education regulated by the Ministry of Education. 1 2 3 4 5
- c. To what extent is special education regulated by the judiciary. 1 2 3 4 5
- d. To what extent is special education regulated by prefectural boards of education. 1 2 3 4 5
- e. To what extent is special education regulated by municipal boards of education. 1 2 3 4 5
- f. To what extent is special education funded by the national government. 1 2 3 4 5
- g. To what extent is special education funded by prefectural governments. 1 2 3 4 5
- h. To what extent is special education funded by municipal governments. 1 2 3 4 5
- i. To what extent are mentally retarded students in special classes educated with non-handicapped students who are in regular classes. 1 2 3 4 5
- j. To what extent are emotionally disturbed students in special classes educated with non-handicapped students who are in regular classes. 1 2 3 4 5

2. Which of the following activities are used to place students in special classes for the mentally retarded? Place an "o" next to each activity that is used.

- a. _____ conferences between parents and school officials.
- b. _____ observations by school officials of the student in the regular classroom.
- c. _____ interventions (e.g., change in curriculum, change of seat, change in behavior management) tried by the regular classroom teacher.
- d. _____ the appointment of a committee to screen student data, to review evaluation data and to make placement decisions.
- e. _____ administration of sensory functioning tests (hearing, vision, speech and language).
- f. _____ administration of a medical examination.
- g. _____ administration of an intelligence test.
- h. _____ administration of an academic achievement test.
- i. _____ administration of daily living (social functioning) rating scales.
- j. _____ development of an individual educational plan.

3. Which of the following activities are used to place students in special classes for the emotionally disturbed? Place an "o" next to each activity that is used.

- a. _____ conferences between parents and school officials.
- b. _____ observations by school officials of the student in the regular classroom.
- c. _____ interventions (e.g., change in curriculum, change of seat, change in behavior management) tried by the regular classroom teacher.
- d. _____ the appointment of a committee to screen student data, to review evaluation data and to make placement decisions.
- e. _____ administration of sensory functioning tests (hearing, vision, speech and language).
- f. _____ administration of a medical examination.
- g. _____ administration of an intelligence test.
- h. _____ administration of an academic achievement test.
- i. _____ administration of behavior rating scales.
- j. _____ development of an individual educational plan.

4. For the 1981-82 school year, please indicate below the number of students for each question.

	LEVEL	
	ELEMENTARY	LOWER SECONDARY
a. How many students are referred for mildly mentally retarded special classes?	_____	_____
b. Of the number referred how many are evaluated?	_____	_____
c. Of the number evaluated how many are placed into a special class for the mildly mentally retarded?	_____	_____
d. How many students are referred for emotionally disturbed special classes?	_____	_____
e. Of the number referred how many are evaluated?	_____	_____
f. Of the number evaluated how many are placed into special classes for the emotionally disturbed?	_____	_____

5. Please indicate the tests and rating scales which are most frequently used to evaluate students being considered for special classes. Place an "o" in the appropriate column to indicate the tests and rating scales that are used. If a test is used that is not named, please write the name(s) under the word "Other(s)", and place an "o" in the appropriate column.

TESTS AND RATING SCALES	SPECIAL CLASSES	
	MENTALLY RETARDED	EMOTIONALLY DISTURBED
a. Wechsler Intelligence Scales for Children - Revised	_____	_____
b. Stanford-Binet-Suzuki Intelligence Scales	_____	_____
c. Other(s): Intelligence Test(s)	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
d. Teacher Made Tests of Achievement	_____	_____
e. Peabody Individual Achievement Test	_____	_____
f. Wide Range Achievement Test	_____	_____
g. Other(s): Standardized Achievement Test(s)	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____

- | | | |
|--|-------|-------|
| h. AAMD-Adaptive Behavior Scale | _____ | _____ |
| i. Vineland Test of Social Maturity | _____ | _____ |
| j. Social Maturity Test | _____ | _____ |
| k. Other(s): Daily Living Skills Rating Scale(s) | _____ | _____ |
| | _____ | _____ |
| l. Devereaux | _____ | _____ |
| m. Hewett | _____ | _____ |
| n. Other(s): Behavior Rating Scale(s) | _____ | _____ |
| | _____ | _____ |
| o. Thematic Apperception Test | _____ | _____ |
| p. House-Tree-Person | _____ | _____ |
| q. Other(s): Projective Tests | _____ | _____ |
| | _____ | _____ |
| r. Enjuzi-Shiki Developmental Test | _____ | _____ |
| s. Tsumori-Shiki | _____ | _____ |
| t. K-Shiki | _____ | _____ |

6. Please rank in order of importance problems facing special education in Japan. If a problem is not listed, please write it in under the word "Other(s)" and rank it appropriately.

PROBLEMSRANK

1 = most important
12 = least important

- | | |
|--|-------|
| a. Integration or "Mainstreaming" | _____ |
| b. Locating appropriate tests | _____ |
| c. Locating enough university trained special education teachers | _____ |
| d. Obtaining parent cooperation | _____ |
| e. Developing appropriate educational diagnoses | _____ |

- f. Locating appropriate curricula _____
- g. Locating appropriate instructional materials _____
- h. Providing in-service training to special education teachers _____
- i. Lack of appropriate facilities (e.g., adequate classroom space) _____
- j. Lack of school psychologists to conduct evaluations _____
- k. Lack of school social workers to help families _____
- l. Lack of guidance counselors to help students adjust to their handicap _____
- m. Other(s): _____

7. Please indicate below information concerning the placement committee that makes decisions about special classes for students. Place an "o" next to the appropriate answers. If additional information is to be indicated, please write it under the word "Other(s)".

a. Who participates on the placement committee?

- | | |
|--|-------------------------------|
| _____ Parents | _____ Guidance Counselor |
| _____ Principal | _____ Social Worker |
| _____ Special Education Teacher | _____ Medical Doctor |
| _____ School Psychologist | _____ School Nurse |
| _____ Regular Education Teacher | _____ University Psychologist |
| _____ Student (when appropriate) | _____ Other(s): _____ |
| _____ Director of Special Education | _____ |
| _____ Director of Elementary/Secondary Education | _____ |
| _____ Welfare Facility Caseworker | |

b. How often does the placement committee meet?

Once a week

Quarterly

_____ Once a month

Semi-Annually

Twice a month

Yearly

Other(s) :

c. What is the average time the placement committee spends on each case?

_____ 1 - 5 hours

6 - 10 hours

11 - 15 hours

16 - 20 hours

Other(s) : _____

8. Next to each activity below, write the type of agency (e.g., Ministry of Labor, medical clinic, university) that may provide assistance to public schools with special classes. If additional information is to be indicated, please write it under the word "Other(s)".

a. Psychological Evaluation
and Diagnostics:

(1) _____ (2) _____ (3) _____

b. Psychiatric Evaluation
and Diagnostics:

(1) _____ (2) _____ (3) _____

c. Vocational Rehabilitation;

(1) _____ (2) _____ (3) _____

d. *Mental Health Counseling:*

(1) _____ (2) _____ (3) _____

e. *Medical Care:*

(1) _____ (2) _____ (3) _____

f. Financial Support:

(1) _____ (2) _____ (3) _____

g. Other(s):

_____ (1) _____ (2) _____ (3) _____

	(1)	(2)	(3)
--	-----	-----	-----

APPENDIX B

A QUESTIONNAIRE PERTAINING TO A SURVEY OF SELECTED
CHARACTERISTICS OF THE ADMINISTRATION OF SPECIAL
EDUCATION CLASSES IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF JAPAN
(JAPANESE TRANSLATION)

昭和56年度に關し、以下の a ～ j までの項目について可能な限りご記入ください。

- | | | | |
|------------|-------|-------------------|-------|
| a 市または区の名前 | _____ | g 精神薄弱特殊学級児童数 (小) | _____ |
| b 市または区の人口 | _____ | h 精神薄弱特殊学級生徒数 (中) | _____ |
| c 公立小学校数 | _____ | i 情緒障害特殊学級児童数 (小) | _____ |
| d 公立中学校数 | _____ | j 情緒障害特殊学級生徒数 (中) | _____ |
| e 公立小学校児童数 | _____ | | |
| f 公立中学校生徒数 | _____ | | |

(注) このアンケートでは、情緒障害児のことを、「情緒、行為に重大な欠陥が認められるが、精神薄弱ではない児童」と定義しています。

- 1 それぞれの質問に対するあなたの意見を示す番号に○印をつけて下さい。

1 = 著しい ～ 5 = わずかである

- a. 特殊教育に対する政府の影響力は、どの程度だと思いますか。
1 2 3 4 5
- b. 特殊教育に対する文部省の影響力は、どの程度だと思いますか。
1 2 3 4 5
- c. 特殊教育に対する裁判所の影響力は、どの程度だと思いますか。
1 2 3 4 5
- d. 特殊教育に対する都道府県教育委員会の影響力は、どの程度だと思いますか。
1 2 3 4 5
- e. 特殊教育に対する市町村教育委員会の影響力は、どの程度だと思いますか。
1 2 3 4 5
- f. 特殊教育財政は、政府によってどの程度支えられていると思いますか。
1 2 3 4 5
- g. 特殊教育財政は、都道府県によってどの程度支えられていると思いますか。
1 2 3 4 5
- h. 特殊教育財政は、市町村によってどの程度支えられていると思いますか。
1 2 3 4 5
- i. 特殊学級にいる精神薄弱児は、普通学級にいる健常児と、どの程度一緒に教育されていると思いますか。
1 2 3 4 5
- j. 特殊学級にいる情緒障害児は、普通学級にいる健常児と、どの程度一緒に教育されていると思いますか。
1 2 3 4 5

2. 精神障害児のための特殊学級への入級をすすめる際、次のどの手続きをういますか。あてはまるものを全部に○印をつけて下さい。

- a. 両親と学校との話し合い
- b. 普通学級にいる対象児を学校関係者が観察する
- c. 普通学級教師による工夫（例えば、カリキュラムの変更、席がえ、行動の扱い方を変える）
- d. 対象児の資料を審査し、評価を見直し、入級の決定をするために、就学指導委員会にかける
- e. 感覚機能（聴覚、視覚、ことば、言語など）のテストの実施
- f. 医学的検査の実施
- g. 知能テストの実施
- h. 学力検査の実施
- i. 日常生活能力（社会的能力）評定尺度の実施
- j. 個別教育計画の立案

3. 情緒障害児のための特殊学級への入級をすすめる際、次のどの手続きをういますか。あてはまるものを全部に○印をつけて下さい。

- a. 両親と学校との話し合い
- b. 普通学級にいる対象児を学校関係者が観察する
- c. 普通学級教師による工夫（例えば、カリキュラムの変更、席がえ、行動の扱い方を変える）
- d. 対象児の資料を審査し、評価を見直し、入級の決定をするために、就学指導委員会にかける
- e. 感覚機能（聴覚、視覚、ことば、言語など）のテストの実施
- f. 医学的検査の実施
- g. 知能テストの実施
- h. 学力検査の実施
- i. 日常生活能力（社会的能力）評定尺度の実施
- j. 個別教育計画の立案

4. 昭和56年度中における各項に該当する普通学級児童・生徒の数を記入して下さい。

	小学校	中学校
a. 精神障害特殊学級への入級が問題にされた普通学級児の数		
b. その中で、テストなどにより評定された者の数		
c. 評定された者のうち、特殊学級へ入級した者の数		
d. 情緒障害児学級への入級が問題にされた普通学級児の数		
e. その中で、テストなどにより評定された者の数		
f. 評定された者のうち、情緒障害児学級へ入級した者の数		

5 就学指導において最も多く用いるテスト、評定尺度についてお答え下さい。あてはまる欄に○印をつけて下さい。使っているテストがない場合は、その他の欄にテスト名をお書き下さい。

	特 殊 学 級	
	精神薄弱特殊学級	情緒障害児学級
a. WISC-R 知能検査	_____	_____
b. 鈴木ビネー、田中ビネー知能検査	_____	_____
c. その他の知能検査	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
d. 教師自作の学力検査	_____	_____
e. ビーボディー個別学力検査	_____	_____
f. ワイドレンジ学力検査	_____	_____
g. その他の標準化された学力検査	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
h. ABS 適応行動尺度	_____	_____
i. S-M 社会生活能力検査	_____	_____
j. その他の日常生活能力検査	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
k. Devereaux Behavior Rating Scale	_____	_____
l. Hewett	_____	_____
m. その他の行動尺度	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
n. TAT (絵画統覚検査)	_____	_____
o. 家・木・人 描画テスト	_____	_____
p. その他の投影法テスト	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
q. 遠城寺式発達検査	_____	_____
r. 津守式発達検査	_____	_____
s. K 式 (京都児童院式) 発達検査	_____	_____
t. その他の発達検査	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____

- 6 日本の特殊教育が当面している問題を、重要性が大きいと思われる方から順に1～12まで番号をふって下さい。もし他に重要な問題がありましたら、それを空欄に書き、順位をつけ、それを合めて12になるようにして下さい。

- a ☐ 統合あるいは交流教育
 b ☐ 適切なテストを得ること
 c ☐ 大学で訓練された特殊教育担当教員を十分に得ること
 d ☐ 両親の協力を得ること
 e ☐ 適切な教育的診断法を開発すること
 f ☐ 適切な教育課程を得ること
 g ☐ 適切な教材・教具を得ること
 h ☐ 特殊教育担当教師に対する現職教育
 i ☐ 施設・設備の不足（例えば不十分な教室のスペース）
 j ☐ 子どもの評価を担当する学校心理学者がいないこと
 k ☐ 家庭を援助する学校社会福祉司（スクールソーシャルワーカー）がいないこと
 l ☐ 子どもが障害を克服するのを援助する助言者がいないこと
 m ☐ その他

- 7 就学指導委員会に関する以下の質問にお答え下さい。適当な答えに○印をつけて下さい。必要があれば、その他のところへご記入下さい。

- a 就学指導委員会に誰が参加しますか

- | | |
|---|---------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 両親 | <input type="checkbox"/> ガイダンスカウンセラー |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 校長 | <input type="checkbox"/> ソーシャルワーカー |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 特殊教育担当教員 | <input type="checkbox"/> 医者 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 学校心理学者 | <input type="checkbox"/> 養護教諭 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 普通学級担任 | <input type="checkbox"/> 大学の心理学者 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 児童・生徒（適当である場合） | <input type="checkbox"/> 福祉施設のケースワーカー |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 特殊教育担当指導主事 | <input type="checkbox"/> 普通教育担当指導主事 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> その他 _____ | |

- b 就学指導委員会開催の頻度をお答え下さい。

- | | |
|------------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 週1回 | <input type="checkbox"/> 年4回 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 月1回 | <input type="checkbox"/> 半年に1回 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 月2回 | <input type="checkbox"/> 1年に1回 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> その他 _____ | |

c 一人のケースに要する平均所要時間をお答え下さい。

___ 1～5 時間

___ 6～10 時間

___ 11～15 時間

___ 16～20 時間

___ その他 _____

8 次の事柄について、公立学校特殊学級の相談を受けたり、援助をしたりする機関をお書き下さい。(例えば、労働省、病院、大学など)他に事柄がありましたら、その他の欄に書き、それについても同様の機関を書いて下さい。

a 心理学的診断と評価

(1) _____ (2) _____ (3) _____

b 精神医学的診断と評価

(1) _____ (2) _____ (3) _____

c 職業的リハビリテーション

(1) _____ (2) _____ (3) _____

d 精神衛生相談

(1) _____ (2) _____ (3) _____

e 診療

(1) _____ (2) _____ (3) _____

f 財政的援助

(1) _____ (2) _____ (3) _____

g その他 _____

(1) _____ (2) _____ (3) _____

以上

APPENDIX C

LETTER SENT TO JAPANESE SPECIAL
EDUCATORS FOR PILOT STUDY

Dear _____:

Philip Kalfin is a doctoral student from the University of Florida located in the United States. He is conducting dissertation research concerning the administration of special education programs in the public schools of Japan. For this purpose he has developed a questionnaire which he will use to survey a sample of school districts.

In order to determine if the questionnaire is suitable and ready for distribution, Mr. Kalfin and I believe that it should be reviewed by several knowledgeable individuals who are familiar with special education. Therefore, Mr. Kalfin and I would appreciate it if you could take some time to read the questionnaire and express your opinions about it on the enclosed rating scale.

After you have completed the rating scale please return it by Monday, February 7th 1983 to:

Philip Kalfin
Gotokuji Mansion
11-27 Setagaya, 3-chome
Setagaya-Ku
Tokyo 154 Japan

You will find a stamped envelope enclosed for this purpose.

Mr. Kalfin and I wish to express our gratitude and deep appreciation to you in advance for your time and effort.

Sincerely yours,

Professor Toske Nomura

Philip N. Kalfin

APPENDIX D

LETTER SENT TO JAPANESE SPECIAL
EDUCATORS FOR PILOT STUDY
(JAPANESE TRANSLATION)

拝啓

米国フロリダ大学博士課程に所属する学生フィリップ・カルフィン氏は、現在、日本の公立学校における特殊教育行政をテーマとした学位論文作成のための調査を準備しております。そのため、氏は現在、各学区のサンプル調査に使用するアンケート表の作成に取り組んでおります。

そこで、カルフィン氏と私は、調査に先立ち、そのアンケート表がはたして適切なものであるかどうか確認するために、特殊教育に深い関わりをお持ちの専門家の方々にご意見を賜りたいと考えた次第です。つきましては、ご多忙中たいへん恐縮ですが、アンケート表をご覧いただいた上、同封のアンケート表評価書にご見解を記入いただけましたなら幸いに存じます。

ご記入いただきました評価書は、誠にご面倒とは存じますが、下記住所に、昭和58年2月7日（月）までに到着するようお送りくださいますようお願い申し上げます。

返送先：〒154 東京都世田谷区世田谷3丁目11-27

豪徳寺マンション

フィリップ・カルフィン

なお、返送には、同封の返信用封筒をお使いください。

ご協力に対しましては、私、並びにフィリップ・カルフィンともども心より感謝いたします。

敬具

様

東京学芸大学教授

野村東助

野村東助

フィリップ N. カルフィン

Philip N. Kalfin

APPENDIX E

EVALUATION INSTRUMENT SENT TO
JAPANESE SPECIAL EDUCATORS
FOR PILOT STUDY

QUESTIONNAIRE
RATING SCALE

Name _____

Occupation _____

Please circle the number which indicates the extent to which you agree with each statement:

1 = strongly agree

5 = strongly disagree

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. The questionnaire is easy to read. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. The questionnaire is easy to understand. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. All terms used in the questionnaire are clearly understood. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. The instructions for each question are clear. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. There are no spelling, grammar or punctuation errors. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Comments

If you have any suggestions or changes relating to the questionnaire, please write them below and please indicate the question number.

APPENDIX F

EVALUATION INSTRUMENT SENT TO JAPANESE
SPECIAL EDUCATORS FOR PILOT STUDY
(JAPANESE TRANSLATION)

アンケート表 評価書

お名前：

ご職業：

下記評価につきまして、どの程度同意できるか、適切と思われる番号を丸で囲んでください。

1 = 全く同意する ~ 5 = 同意できない

- | | | | | | |
|----------------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. このアンケート表は読み易い。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. このアンケート表は分かり易い。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. このアンケート表に使用されている用語は、すべて分かり易い。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. 各項目の指示はすべて適切である。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. 日本語表記の誤りは全くない。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

ご見解：（このアンケート表について、ご意見、ご助言などありましたら、項目番号を明記して、下記空欄にお書きください。）

APPENDIX G

LIST OF 56 CITIES IN JAPAN
INCLUDED IN THE STUDY

Sample - 56 Locations

The number next to each prefecture name is the population multiplied by 1,000.

Large Prefectures:

Hokkaido - 5,607

Sapporo	Kushiro
Hakodate	Muroran
Asahikawa	Obihiro
Otaru	Tomakomai

Tokyo - 11,635

Meguroku	Nerima-Ku
Shibuya-Ku	Nakano-Ku
Setagaya-Ku	Taito-Ku

Osaka - 8,511

Osaka City	Hirakata
Sakai	Takatsuki
HigashiOsaka	Suita
Toyonaka	Yao

Aichi - 6,267

Nagoya	Ichinomiya
Ichinomiya	Toyota
Okazaki	Kasugai

Medium Prefectures:

Ibaragi - 2,594

Mito	Tsuchiura
Hitachi	Toride

Gunma - 1,863

Maebashi	Kiryu
Takasaki	Ota

Kyoto - 2,541

Kyoto City	Maizuru
Uji	Joyo

Nagasaki - 1,594

Omura	Isahaiya
Sasebo	Nagasaki City

Small Prefectures:

Aomori -1,527 Shiga - 1,096

Aomori City	Otsu
Hatchinobe	Hikone
Hirosaki	Kusatsu

Tottori - 607 Saga - 869

Tottori City	Imari
Kurayashi	Karatsu
Yonago	Saga City

APPENDIX H

LETTER SENT TO JAPANESE SPECIAL
EDUCATION ADMINISTRATORS

March 1, 1983

Dear Sir or Madam:

Philip Kalfin is a doctoral student from the University of Florida located in the United States. He is conducting dissertation research concerning the administration of special education classes in the public schools of Japan. For this purpose, he has developed a questionnaire, which he will use to collect data.

The National Institute of Special Education has reviewed this questionnaire and has found it to be appropriate and useful. Mr. Kalfin has pledged his cooperation in sharing this data with the Institute and with the school districts included in the same used for the study. Therefore, we would recommend and appreciate your cooperation in this research.

Please complete the enclosed questionnaire and return it by Thursday, March 31, 1983 to:

Philip Kalfin
Gotokuji Mansion Apt. 709
11-27 Setagaya 3 Chome
Setagaya-Ku
Tokyo 154 Japan

You will find a stamped, self-addressed envelope for this purpose.

Mr. Kalfin wishes to express his gratitude and deep appreciation to you, in advance, for your time and effort. He also expresses the hope that his work will make a small contribution to promoting a mutual understanding between special education administrators in Japan and the United States.

Sincerely yours,

Takeshi Kaneko
Researcher
National Institute of Special Education

Philip N. Kalfin

APPENDIX I

LETTER SENT TO JAPANESE SPECIAL
EDUCATION ADMINISTRATORS
(JAPANESE TRANSLATION)

拝啓

米国フロリダ大学博士課程に所属する学生であるフィリップ・カルフィンは、現在、日本の公立学校における特殊教育行政をテーマとした学位論文作成のために調査をすすめております。そのため、各種データの収集に使用するアンケート表を作成いたしました。

そのアンケート表は国立特殊教育総合研究所に送られ、そこで、その内容が適切かつ有意義であることが認められました。カルフィン氏は、このアンケート表によって得られたデータを、同研究所、並びに彼の研究対象となった各学区の皆さまにも提供する旨誓約いたしました。そこで、私共よりも、彼の調査に関しまして皆さま方のご協力がいただけますようお願い申しあげる次第です。

同封のアンケート表にご記入いただいた上で、昭和58年3月31日までに、下記住所に到着するようお送りいただければ幸いです。

返送先：〒154 東京都世田谷区世田谷3丁目11-27

豪徳寺マンション 709

フィリップ・カルフィン

なお、返送には、同封の返信用封筒をお使いください。

ご協力に対しましては、私、並びにフィリップ・カルフィンともども深く感謝いたします。また、本研究が日米両国の特殊教育行政の相互理解の一助となることを心より願ってやみません。

敬具

昭和58年3月1日

様

国立特殊教育総合研究所 精神薄弱教育研究部
研究員 金子 健

フィリップ・カルフィン

APPENDIX J

TELEPHONE LOG OF
MR. TAKESHI KANEKO

TAKESHI KANEKO

National Institute of Special Education
2360 Nobi, Yokosuka
Kanagawa, Japan

May 6, 1983

Mr. Philip N. Kalfin
Gotokuji Mansion
11-27 Setagaya-Ku 3-Chome
Tokyo 154, Japan

Dear Phil:

As per your request, I made several follow-up phone calls to school districts in the medium-sized, prefecture category. Most of these calls were made the week of March 21, 1983.

The following list indicates the cities and prefectures that I contacted:

<u>City</u>	<u>Prefecture</u>
Mito	Ibaragi
Hitachi	
Tsuchiura	
Toride	
Maebashi	Gunma
Takasaki	
Kiryu	
Ota	
Maizuru	Kyoto
Kyoto City	
Uji	
Joyo	
Sasebo	Nagasaki
Nagasaki City	
Isahaiya	
Omura	

I hope my efforts have helped you to obtain a substantial return of your questionnaires.

Sincerely yours,

Takeshi Kaneko, Researcher
National Institute of Special Education

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Philip N. Kalfin was born in New York City, New York, on January 19, 1946. He was graduated from Far Rockaway High School in 1963. He received his bachelor's degree in industrial psychology from the City College of New York in 1968; his master's degree in special education from the University of Miami in 1974; and his specialist degree in special education administration from the University of Florida in 1976.

He has had 12 years of experience in the public schools and one year in the private sector. These experiences have been in five different geographical locations and with differing socioeconomic populations.

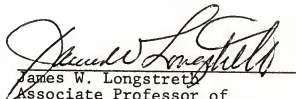
He initially taught special education in an inner city elementary school in Brooklyn, New York. In Dade County, Florida, he worked with elementary level learning disabled students. In Hamilton County, Florida, he was employed as a consulting teacher for special education teachers in a seven county region. In Pasco County, Florida, he was employed as a supervisor of special education in the areas of learning disabilities and emotionally handicapped.

From 1976 to 1978, he worked as a learning manager (part-time) for the Instructional Manpower Training System at Lake City Community College in Columbia County, Florida. His primary responsibility there was to remediate basic skills deficits of adult learners enrolled in vocational training programs.

From June, 1982 to July, 1983, he was employed by Time-Life Books, Japan, as a teacher of English for executives of major Japanese corporations. It was during his 13 months in that country that he investigated Japanese special education programs and the development of the Japanese school system during the last century.

Program requirements were fulfilled for the Ed.D. degree in special education administration from June, 1978 to June, 1984, at the University of Florida. Upon completion of the doctoral program, he will be employed in administration in the public schools.

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Education.


James W. Longstreth
Associate Professor of
Educational Administration
and Supervision

This dissertation was submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the Department of Special Education in the College of Education and to the Graduate Council and was accepted as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education.

August, 1984

Dean for Graduate Studies and
Research